NO\textsubscript{x} emission characteristics of counterflow syngas diffusion flames with airstream dilution

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Abstract

Syngas is produced through a gasification process using variety of fossil fuels, including coal, biomass, organic waste, and refinery residual. Although, its composition may vary significantly, it generally contains CO and H\textsubscript{2} as the dominant fuel components with varying amount of methane and diluents. Due to its wide flexibility in fuel sources and superior pollutants characteristics, the syngas is being recognized as a viable energy source worldwide, particularly for stationary power generation. There are, however, gaps in the fundamental understanding of syngas combustion and emissions, as most previous research has focused on flames burning individual fuel components such as H\textsubscript{2} and CH\textsubscript{4}, rather than syngas mixtures. This paper reports a numerical investigation on the effects of syngas composition and diluents on the structure and emission characteristics of syngas nonpremixed flames. The counterflow syngas flames are simulated using two representative syngas mixtures, 50%H\textsubscript{2}/50%CO and 45%H\textsubscript{2}/45%CO/10%CH\textsubscript{4} by volume, and three diluents, N\textsubscript{2}, H\textsubscript{2}O, and CO\textsubscript{2}. The effectiveness of these diluents is characterized in terms of their ability to reduce NO\textsubscript{x} in syngas flames. Results indicate that syngas nonpremixed flames are characterized by relatively high temperatures and high NO\textsubscript{x} concentrations and emission indices. The presence of methane in syngas decreases the peak flame temperature, but increases the formation of prompt NO significantly. Consequently, while the total NO formed is predominantly due to the thermal mechanism for the 50%H\textsubscript{2}/50%CO mixture, it is due to the prompt mechanism for the 45%H\textsubscript{2}/45%CO/10%CH\textsubscript{4} mixture. For both mixtures, CO\textsubscript{2} and H\textsubscript{2}O are more effective than N\textsubscript{2} in reducing NO\textsubscript{x} in syngas flames. H\textsubscript{2}O is the most effective diluent on a mass basis, while CO\textsubscript{2} is more effective than N\textsubscript{2}. The effectiveness of H\textsubscript{2}O is due to its high specific heat that decreases the thermal NO, and its ability to significantly reduce the concentration of CH radicals, which decreases the prompt NO. The presence of methane in syngas reduces the effectiveness of all three diluents.

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Keywords: Syngas fuel; NO\textsubscript{x} emissions; Effect of diluents

1. Introduction

Syngas or synthetic gas is formed through the gasification process, and can be produced from virtually any fossil fuel, including coal, biomass, organic waste, and refinery residual [1,2]. As the world energy demand and environmental concern continue to grow, syngas is expected to play an important role in future energy production. It represents a viable energy source, particularly for stationary power generation, since it allows for a wide flexibility in fossil fuel sources, and since most of the harmful contaminants and pollutants can be removed in the post-gasification process prior to combustion. Moreover, improvements in gas turbine efficiency and reliability have made syngas a viable fuel for electric power generation using integrated gasification combined cycle (IGCC) systems [3]. In spite of many advantages of syngas, however, its environmental feasibility needs to be fully established. In particular, NO\textsubscript{x} emissions from syngas combustion must comply with the current and future emission regulations. For instance, a recent DOE initiative aims at reducing NO\textsubscript{x} emissions from syngas combustion systems to less than 3 ppm, well below the current US regulations [3]. This provides a major motivation for fundamental research focusing on syngas combustion and emissions.

There is an extensive body of literature dealing with the structure and emission characteristics of counterflow diffusion flames. However, most of these studies have focused on the combustion of individual syngas components, such as methane [4,5] and hydrogen fuels [6–8], rather than on syngas mixtures. Similarly, previous studies dealing with the effects of diluents on emissions have generally focused on the emission characteristics of CH\textsubscript{4}–air and H\textsubscript{2}–air flames, rather than of...
syngas flames. Li et al. [4] conducted an experimental and numerical study on the effects of air stream dilution using various agents (N₂, H₂O, CO₂, and Ar) on NOₓ emission from CH₄–air counterflow flames. On a mass basis, the effectiveness of various diluents in reducing NOₓ emission was found to rank in the order: H₂O > CO₂ > N₂ > Ar. The higher effectiveness of H₂O was due to its higher heat capacity that reduces the flame temperature and thereby the thermal NO, and its ability to reduce the concentration of CH radicals that reduces the prompt NO. Zhao et al. [5] examined numerically the effects of steam addition on NO formation in H₂–air flames. On a mole basis, CO₂ was found to be a more effective diluent compared to N₂ in reducing both the flame temperature and NOₓ concentration in these flames. Park et al. [7] also investigated the effect of steam addition on NO formation in H₂–O₂–N₂ diffusion flames. Naha et al. [9,10] reported a numerical investigation on the effects of blending hydrogen with different fuels (methane and n-heptane) on NOₓ emissions in counterflow nonpremixed and partially premixed flames. They observed that hydrogen blending has a more favorable effect on NOₓ emissions in n-heptane flames compared to that in methane flames. This was attributed to a dramatic reduction in prompt NO due to hydrogen addition in n-heptane flames.

Some previous studies have focused on the combustion and emission characteristics of syngas mixtures. Allen et al. [11] studied the oxidation chemistry of CO/H₂O/N₂ mixtures. Drake and Blint [12] numerically investigated the effect of stretch on thermal NO in laminar, counterflow CO/H₂/N₂ diffusion flames, and observed that NO concentration decreases dramatically as the flame stretch is increased. Chung and Williams [13] analyzed the structure and extinction of a CO/H₂/N₂ diffusion flame using an asymptotic approach. Fotache et al. [14] examined experimentally and numerically the ignition characteristics of a CO/H₂/N₂ mixture using heated air in a counterflow configuration. Charlston-Goch et al. [15] reported measurement and computation of NO concentrations in premixed CO/H₂/CH₄/air flames at high pressures. Rumminger and Linteris [16] reported an experimental and numerical investigation on the burning velocity of premixed CO/H₂/O₂/N₂ flames with the objective of assessing the fire inhibition characteristics of iron pentacarbonyl. Natarajan et al. [17] also reported measurement and computation of laminar flame speeds of H₂/CO/CO₂ mixtures over a range of fuel compositions, lean equivalence ratios, and reactant preheat temperatures. Alavandi and Agrawal [18] investigated experimentally the lean premixed combustion of CO/H₂/CH₄/air mixture, and observed that at a given flame temperature, the presence of CH₄ in a CO–H₂ mixture increases CO and NOₓ emissions.

The syngas composition varies widely depending upon the fossil fuel source, gasification process, and post-gasification treatment. In addition, the type and amount of diluents present during syngas combustion can vary significantly. These variations are well illustrated in Table 1 taken from Ref. [19], which lists the composition of syngas fuel and the various diluents used in gas turbine power generation facilities in different regions of the world. Our literature review indicates that while the combustion and emission characteristics of individual syngas components, such as hydrogen and methane, have been extensively investigated, the corresponding research dealing with the combustion of syngas mixtures has been relatively sparse. Consequently, there is a gap in our fundamental understanding of the combustion and emission characteristics of various syngas mixtures. Further experimental and numerical investigations are needed to characterize the detailed structure of syngas flames, and the effects of various diluents on emissions from these flames.

Motivated by this consideration, we report herein a numerical investigation of syngas nonpremixed flames in a counterflow configuration, and characterize the effects of various diluents on NOₓ emissions in these flames. The counterflow configuration is employed so that more comprehensive chemistry and transport models can be used for a detailed investigation of the structure and emission characteristics of syngas flames. The syngas flames are simulated using two representative syngas mixtures containing CO, H₂, and CH₄, one containing 50% H₂ and 50% CO by volume and the other 45% H₂, 45% CO, and 10% CH₄ by volume. The selection of these two mixtures is based on the composition of syngas mixtures used in various power generation systems listed in Table 1. As indicated in this table, while the syngas composition may vary significantly, CO and H₂ represent the dominant components of most syngas mixtures with varying amounts of methane and diluents. The average syngas composition computed using values from this table are shown in Table 2. Based on these average values and standard deviation, the two syngas mixtures considered in the present study are also shown in this table. The three commonly used diluents used during syngas combustion include N₂, H₂O, and CO₂. Although one or more of diluents may be present or introduced into the syngas mixture during the gasification and refining processes, the present study considers the effects of adding these diluents in the oxidizer stream. This is motivated by the consideration that in syngas combustors used in IGCC systems, diluents are introduced directly into the combustor as opposed to premixing them with syngas prior to injection. A detailed parametric study is performed to characterize the effects of syngas composition and three diluents on the syngas flame structure and NOₓ emissions.

2. The numerical model

A schematic of the syngas nonpremixed flame simulated in a counterflow configuration is shown in Fig. 1. This relatively simple configuration facilitates a detailed analysis of the effects of syngas composition and various diluents on the flame structure and the relative contributions of thermal and prompt NO mechanisms for a wide range of conditions. In IGCC power generation systems, the energy is delivered through controlled combustion of syngas in a gas turbine. In
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syngas</th>
<th>PSI</th>
<th>Tampa</th>
<th>El Dorado</th>
<th>Pernis</th>
<th>Sierra Pacific</th>
<th>ILVA</th>
<th>Schwarze Pumpe</th>
<th>Sarlux</th>
<th>Fife</th>
<th>Exxon Singapore</th>
<th>Motiva Delaware</th>
<th>PIEMSA</th>
<th>Tonghua</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H₂</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>61.9</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>44.5</td>
<td>32.00</td>
<td>42.30</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COPOLYMERS</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>46.6</td>
<td>45.0</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>55.4</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>49.50</td>
<td>47.77</td>
<td>22.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Equivalent LHV (Btu/ft³)**
- Always co-fired with 50% natural gas.
Table 2
Average syngas composition and amount of major diluents (vol%) corresponding to syngas mixtures listed in Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syngas constituent</th>
<th>Average (vol%)</th>
<th>Standard deviation (vol%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H₂</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>14.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH₄</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO₂</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N₂+Ar</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₂O</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flame A</td>
<td>50% H₂/50% CO (by volume)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flame B</td>
<td>45% H₂/45% CO/10% CH₄</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compositions of two syngas mixtures considered in the present study are listed.

such systems, diluents are injected into the combustor directly as opposed to premixing them with syngas prior to injection. This allows the fuel control valves to be reduced in size, and the diluent and syngas source feeds to be held at different pressures [9]. Moreover, since the syngas is injected nonpremixed in a gaseous form and quickly ignited within the combustor, fuel–air premixing prior to combustion is assumed to be small, and neglected in this study. From a counterflow flame perspective, this implies the injection of nonpremixed syngas from the fuel nozzle and that of diluted air from the oxidizer nozzle, as shown in Fig. 1.

Simulations of nonpremixed syngas flames are performed using the OPPDIF code [20] with the CHEMKIN package [21]. The OPPDIF code is written in FORTRAN, and used for computing the flow field in a counterflow configuration. An optically thin radiation model is used to account for the radiation heat loss [22]. The temperature of both the fuel and oxidizer streams is taken as 300 K. The velocities of the fuel and oxidizer streams are chosen to conform to the global strain rate

\[
a_s = \frac{2|V_0|}{L} \left(1 + \frac{|V_F|}{V_0} \sqrt{\frac{\rho_F}{\rho_0}}\right) \quad (1)
\]

and to satisfy the momentum balance

\[
\rho_0 V_O^2 = \rho_F V_F^2 \quad (2)
\]

here V and ρ represent the velocity and density, respectively, with the subscripts ‘O’ and ‘F’ indicating the oxidizer and fuel streams, respectively, and L is the separation distance between the two nozzles, and is taken as 1.27 cm. Using these two equations, the fuel and air stream velocities can be computed for a given strain rate \(a_s\). The plug flow boundary conditions are used to specify the fuel and air stream velocities at the respective boundaries. Boundary conditions for the species conservation equations require the specification of species mole fractions at the two boundaries. The two syngas mixtures considered in the present study are listed in Table 2. The oxidizer composition is provided by specifying the mole fraction of a given diluent, with the other species being air containing 79% oxygen and 21% nitrogen by volume.

The syngas oxidation chemistry is modeled by using the GRI Mech-3.0 mechanism [23] that involves 53 species and 325 reactions. This is based on the consideration that CO and H₂ represent the dominant components of most syngas fuels, and the oxidation chemistries of these two species are well represented in this mechanism. The GRI 3.0 mechanism and its earlier versions have been extensively validated in previous studies [24–26] using a variety of configurations including perfectly stirred reactors, autoignition and shock-tube ignition delay times, extinction limits, laminar flame speeds, and nonpremixed and partially premixed methane flames.

Since, no experimental data are available for syngas flames, we performed additional validation studies using the available measurements of the flame structure and NOₓ profiles in methane–air flames. Fig. 2 presents a comparison of the measured and predicted NO profiles for four different methane–air flames. The first three cases are for partially premixed flames established at a strain rate of \(a_s = 20 \text{ s}^{-1}\) and at fuel stream equivalence ratio of \(\phi = 1.45, 1.6, \text{ and } 2.0\) [27,28], while the fourth one is for a nonpremixed flame established at a strain rate of \(a_s = 162 \text{ s}^{-1}\) [29]. It is important to note that there was a good agreement (not shown) between the predicted and measured flame structures in terms of temperature and major species profiles (CH₄, O₂, CO₂, N₂, H₂ and CO). However, the predicted and measured NO profiles indicate that the GRI 3.0 mechanism overpredicts NO mole fractions for fuel rich mixtures (for \(\phi ≥ 1.6\)). This is consistent with the results reported in previous investigations [4,25,28], which have attributed this discrepancy to an overprediction of CH concentration, and thereby of prompt NO by this mechanism. In spite of such discrepancy, the use of this mechanism for the present study is justified by the consideration that no other validated mechanisms are available for syngas flames due to the lack of experimental data, and that GRI 3.0 mechanism and its earlier versions have been extensively used to model flames burning methane and other hydrocarbon fuels such as ethylene and acetylene. In this context, our results pertaining to the effects of syngas composition and diluents on NOₓ emissions should be considered qualitative.

3. Results

3.1. Structure and emission characteristics of syngas flames

Two representative syngas mixtures considered in the present investigation are listed in Table 2. The flames
simulated using these two mixtures are designated as flames A and B, respectively. Since, a major focus of this study is to characterize the effectiveness of various diluents by introducing them in the air stream, the syngas is assumed to contain only H\(_2\), CO, and CH\(_4\) fuel species. Moreover, a fixed strain rate of \(a_s = 100 \text{ s}^{-1}\) is considered in order to focus on characterizing the effectiveness of various diluents on NO\(_x\) formation in syngas flames. Since, the amount of thermal NO formed is strongly influenced by the residence time[30], the effect of strain rate will be examined in a future investigation.

Figs. 3 and 4 present the structures of flames A and B, respectively, in terms of the temperature, axial velocity, and species mole fraction profiles. Both the flames are established at a strain rate of \(a_s = 100 \text{ s}^{-1}\). The global structures of these two flames are similar. As syngas fuel species are transported to and consumed in the nonpremixed reaction zone, the temperature and mole fractions of the major product species (H\(_2\)O and CO\(_2\)) increase. The reaction zone, located on the oxidizer side of the stagnation plane, is characterized by the peaks in the mole fraction profiles of radical species, CH, H, OH, and O. The peak mole fractions of CH and H radicals are located on the fuel side while that of O radicals is located on the oxidizer side, typical of hydrocarbon nonpremixed flames. For both the flames, the CO profile indicates an increase in CO mole fraction near \(x \approx 0.4 \text{ cm}\), which is due to the fact that H\(_2\) diffuses much faster than CO.

The major difference between the two flames is the presence of CH\(_4\) in syngas mixture for flame B. The consumption of CH\(_4\) occurs upstream of the reaction zone (cf. Fig. 4(b)) through its conversion to CO and H\(_2\) [4,9]. The presence of methane in syngas mixture decreases the peak flame temperature by about 120 K, and leads to the formation of a significant amount of acetylene, as indicated in Fig. 4(c). This has important implications for both NO\(_x\) and soot emissions from syngas flames, since C\(_2\)H\(_2\) is considered to be a dominant contributor to prompt NO [4,9] as well as a major soot precursor [10,31,32].
The comparison of NO\textsubscript{x} characteristics of flames A and B is presented in Fig. 5, which shows the NO\textsuperscript{1} mole fraction profiles. The individual contributions of thermal, prompt, and N\textsubscript{2}O-intermediate mechanisms to total NO are also shown in the figure. While the contributions of thermal and prompt mechanisms to total NO are comparable for the two flames, that of N\textsubscript{2}O-intermediate mechanism is relatively

\textsuperscript{1} For the conditions investigated, the contribution of NO\textsubscript{2} to total NO, was found to be negligible.
This is consistent with the results of many previous studies \cite{4,33}, which have observed that the N2O mechanism is more relevant for lean premixed hydrocarbon flames. In this context, it is also important to mention that the contribution of the NNH mechanism was found to be negligible for the nonpremixed flames investigated in the present study.

An important observation from Figs. 5(a) and (b) is that the presence of a relatively small amount of CH4 (10 vol%) in syngas mixture not only increases the peak NO (from 122 to 130 ppm), but also leads to a significant increase in the contribution of prompt NO compared to thermal NO. This can be attributed to a large amount of acetylene formed due to the presence of methane in flame B (cf. Fig. 4(c)), which dramatically increases the formation of CH radical and thereby the formation of HCN in this flame. This is illustrated in Table 3, which lists the peak flame temperature and mole fractions of HCN, NO and important radical species. The peak values are shown for both flames A and B, and without and with the air stream dilution. For the undiluted case, the peak HCN mole fractions for flames A and B are 0.014 and 48.4 ppm, respectively, clearly highlighting the dramatic effect of the presence of methane in syngas on the formation of CH and HCN, and hence on the formation of prompt NO. As discussed in previous studies \cite{33,34}, the reaction of CH with N2 to form HCN (CH + N2 → HCN + N) represents the major initiation step for the formation of prompt NO. Note that the thermal NO is reduced due to the presence of methane in syngas, since the flame temperature is reduced. However, the reduction in thermal NO is small compared to the increase in prompt NO, and, consequently, the total NO increases due to the presence of methane in syngas. It should be noted, however, that the GRI 3.0 mechanism is known to overpredict the formation of prompt NO in methane diffusion flames \cite{4,25,29}. Consequently, the present results regarding the effect of methane on prompt NO should be considered qualitative. Nevertheless, these results indicate that the amount of NOx formed in undiluted syngas flames is rather high, and strategies to reduce NOx to more acceptable levels should be explored in order to meet the emission regulations for syngas combustion systems.

### 3.2. Effects of diluents on NOx emissions: flame A

The relative effectiveness of N2, H2O, and CO2 diluents in reducing NOx emission in flame A (50%H2/50%CO) is depicted in Fig. 6, which presents the NO mole fraction profiles versus the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flame</th>
<th>No dilution</th>
<th>10% N2</th>
<th>10% H2O</th>
<th>10% CO2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tf (K)</strong></td>
<td>2226</td>
<td>2179</td>
<td>2129</td>
<td>2074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H (%mol fraction)</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O (%mol fraction)</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OH (%mol fraction)</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N (ppm)</td>
<td>0.361</td>
<td>0.530</td>
<td>0.315</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HCN (ppm)</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>48.4</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO (ppm)</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
amount of diluent added to air stream on a mole basis. As expected, for all three diluents, the peak NO mole fraction decreases as the amount of dilution is increased. On a mole basis, CO₂ appears to be the most effective agent in reducing NO, followed by H₂O, and then N₂. The relative effectiveness of each diluent is further illustrated in Fig. 7, which presents the axial profiles of temperature, and H, OH, O, N, and HCN mole fractions with no dilution and with 20% dilution by volume. The N and HCN profiles are included to indicate the effectiveness of each diluent in reducing thermal and prompt NO, respectively. Note that addition of a diluent to the air stream causes a corresponding decrease in oxygen mole fraction. Consequently, the flame temperature and the mole fractions of H, O, and OH radicals decrease for all three diluents (cf. Fig. 7(a)–(d)). Even with N₂ dilution, the mole fractions of N and HCN decrease, indicating a strong effect of the reduced flame temperature and radical species (H, CH, OH, and O) concentrations on N and HCN. In general, N₂ dilution causes a smaller reduction in flame temperature and radical species concentrations compared to those with H₂O and CO₂ dilution. On a mole basis, CO₂ dilution causes a larger reduction in flame temperature compared to that with H₂O dilution, which is due to the higher specific heat of CO₂. However, on a mass basis, H₂O has a higher specific heat, and consequently, H₂O dilution would lead to a lower flame temperature. Also, on a mole basis, CO₂ dilution leads to a larger reduction in the mole fractions of OH, N, and HCN, but a smaller reduction in those of H and O, compared to H₂O dilution.

The relative effectiveness of the three diluents in reducing NOₓ is summarized in Fig. 8 by plotting the peak NO mole fraction and flame temperature versus the amount of diluent added to the air stream as percent of mole (volume) and mass, respectively. Important observations are as follows:

1. All three diluents are effective in reducing NO in syngas diffusion flames, as a relatively small amount of dilution reduces the peak NO mole fraction significantly. For example, as shown in Table 3, a 10% dilution with N₂, H₂O, and CO₂ for flame A decreases the peak NO by 44, 60, and 79%, respectively. Both on mole and mass basis, H₂O and CO₂ diluents are more effective than N₂ in reducing NO emissions in syngas flames.

2. On a mole basis, H₂O dilution causes nearly the same reduction in peak flame temperature but a much larger reduction in peak NO compared to that with N₂ dilution. This implies the effectiveness of H₂O in reducing prompt NO. As discussed by Li and Williams [4], the effectiveness of H₂O in reducing prompt NO in methane–air flames is due to its chemical effect that reduces the CH concentration, and thereby the HCN concentration. This is corroborated by the HCN profiles presented in Fig. 7(f), which indicates that a 20% H₂O dilution reduces the peak HCN mole fraction by a factor of about 6, compared to a reduction by a factor of 2 with 20% N₂ dilution.

3. On a mole basis, H₂O and CO₂ cause nearly the same reduction in NO, although the flame temperature is lower...
with CO2 dilution. This can be attributed to the fact that a larger drop in flame temperature caused by CO2 dilution is compensated by a larger drop in O radical concentration caused by H2O dilution (cf. Fig. 7(c)).

4. On a mass basis, H2O is the most effective diluent compared to N2 and CO2 in reducing both the flame temperature and NO concentration. The lower flame temperature with H2O dilution can be attributed to its
higher specific heat, while the lower NO concentration can be attributed to both the thermal and chemical effects of \( \text{H}_2\text{O} \) dilution. The thermal effect decreases the flame temperature and thereby the thermal NO, while the chemical effect decreases the \( \text{CH} \) and \( \text{HCN} \) concentrations and thereby the prompt NO. The chemical effect of \( \text{H}_2\text{O} \) and \( \text{CO}_2 \) diluents is further depicted in Fig. 9, by plotting the peak HCN mole fraction versus the amount of diluent added by mass. A significantly larger reduction in peak HCN caused by \( \text{CO}_2 \) and \( \text{H}_2\text{O} \) compared to that by \( \text{N}_2 \) can be attributed their chemical effect.

5. The chemical effect of \( \text{CO}_2 \) and \( \text{H}_2\text{O} \) in reducing prompt NO can be inferred perhaps more clearly from Fig. 10, which presents the peak NO mole fraction as a function of the peak flame temperature. For the same peak flame temperature, \( \text{H}_2\text{O} \) dilution causes the largest reduction in NO, followed by \( \text{CO}_2 \) dilution, and then by \( \text{N}_2 \) dilution. This implies that the effectiveness of the three diluents in reducing the prompt NO and thereby the total NO can be ranked in the order \( \text{H}_2\text{O} > \text{CO}_2 > \text{N}_2 \). It is also important to note that at relatively high temperatures, the effectiveness of all three diluents becomes nearly the same, indicating that NO production at these temperatures is predominantly due to the thermal mechanism.

### 3.3. Effects of diluents on \( \text{NO}_x \) emissions in flame B

As discussed earlier, the presence of methane in syngas decreases the peak flame temperature and increases the production of prompt NO considerably, while decreasing that of thermal NO. Results are now presented to characterize the effect of methane on the effectiveness of each diluent in reducing \( \text{NO}_x \) emissions from syngas flames.

Fig. 11 presents the variation of peak NO mole fraction and flame temperature versus the amount of diluent added to air stream for flame B on both mole and mass basis. These results are qualitatively similar to those for flame A presented in Fig. 8. While all three diluents are effective in reducing the
peak NO considerably, CO₂ and H₂O are significantly more effective compared to N₂. On a mass basis, H₂O is more effective than N₂ and CO₂, while CO₂ is more effective than N₂, in reducing both the peak NO and flame temperature. This can again be attributed to the effectiveness of H₂O in reducing both the thermal and prompt NO, as discussed earlier in the context of flame A. In order to separate the thermal and chemical effects, the variation of peak NO mole fraction with the peak flame temperature is presented in Fig. 12. This plot is qualitatively similar to that for flame A shown in Fig. 10, indicating the effectiveness of CO₂ and H₂O relative to N₂ in reducing the production of prompt NO in both the flames.

In order to further characterize the effect of methane on diluent effectiveness, we compare in Fig. 13 the variation of peak NO mole fraction versus the amount of diluent added by mass for flames A and B. An important observation from this figure is that the presence of methane decreases the diluent effectiveness in reducing NOₓ emission from syngas flames. For instance, as indicated in Table 4, a 10% dilution using N₂, CO₂ and H₂O reduces the peak NO mole fraction by 44.1, 59.7, and 79%, respectively, for flame A, and by 33.6, 49.2, and 71.4%, respectively, for flame B. The decrease in diluent effectiveness can be attributed to the fact that the presence of methane causes a significant increase in the production of prompt NO in syngas flames. The increase in prompt NO can be easily inferred from the peak HCN mole fraction values for flames A and B listed in Table 3, which indicates a dramatic increase in HCN mole fraction due to the presence of methane. For instance, with 10% methane in syngas for the undiluted case, the peak HCN mole fraction increases from 0.014 to 48.4 ppm. Similar increases in peak HCN mole fractions are observed for the three diluted cases in Table 3. This dramatic increase in HCN mole fraction implies that the production of prompt NO in flame B is significantly increased. As a consequence, the diluent effectiveness is reduced due to the presence of methane in syngas.
3.4. NO\textsubscript{x} emission index for syngas flames

The NO\textsubscript{x} emission from syngas flames can be globally characterized using a NO\textsubscript{x} emission index (EINO\textsubscript{x}) defined as:

\[
EINO_x = \frac{\int_0^L M_{NO} \delta_{NO} \, dx}{\int_0^L M_{fuel} \delta_{fuel} \, dx} \quad (g \text{ NO}_x/\text{kg fuel})
\]  

(3)

here \(\delta\) is the production/consumption rate, \(M\) the molecular weight, and \(L\) the separation distance between the two nozzles. The emission index represents the ratio of the total NO\textsubscript{x} production rate to the total fuel consumption rate. Since the syngas is considered a mixture of CO, H\textsubscript{2}, and CH\textsubscript{4}, the above equation is written as:

\[
EINO_x = \frac{\int_0^L M_{NO} \delta_{NO} \, dx}{-\int_0^L (M_{CO}\delta_{CO} + M_{H_2}\delta_{H_2} + M_{CH_4}\delta_{CH_4}) \, dx}
\]  

(4)

For flame A, the syngas contains only CO and H\textsubscript{2}, and EINO\textsubscript{x} can be easily computed using the above equation. However, for flame B, the computation of the denominator requires additional consideration, since the fuel species CO and H\textsubscript{2}, which represent the major components of syngas, are also produced during the oxidation of CH\textsubscript{4}. Two cases were considered to address this issue. In the first case, only the consumption of CO and H\textsubscript{2} was included in calculating the denominator. This underestimated the denominator, since the methane consumption was not included, and thus overpredicted EINO\textsubscript{x}. In the second case, the consumption rates of all three fuel species were included in the denominator. Since, CO and H\textsubscript{2} are produced from the consumption of CH\textsubscript{4}, this overestimated the denominator and, thus, underpredicted EINO\textsubscript{x}. For example, for the undiluted cases, the EINO\textsubscript{x} values predicted using these two approaches were 1.6 and 1.3 for flame B, while the corresponding value for flame A was 1.35. Since, EINO\textsubscript{x} for flame B is expected to be higher than that for flame A, based on the predicted NO concentrations for these two flames, the actual EINO\textsubscript{x} value for flame B should be between these two limiting values. In order to compare the NO\textsubscript{x} characteristics of the two flames in terms of EINO\textsubscript{x}, we used an average of the two EINO\textsubscript{x} values obtained from the two approaches for flame B.

Fig. 14 presents the variation of EINO\textsubscript{x} as a function of the amount of diluent for flames A and B. Results pertaining to the effect of diluents on EINO\textsubscript{x} for the two flames are qualitatively similar to those presented earlier in terms of the NO mole fraction plots. For both the flames, CO\textsubscript{2} and H\textsubscript{2}O diluents are more effective than N\textsubscript{2} in reducing EINO\textsubscript{x} on a mole basis, while H\textsubscript{2}O diluent is more effective than CO\textsubscript{2} and N\textsubscript{2} on a mass basis. The effectiveness of H\textsubscript{2}O in reducing EINO\textsubscript{x} is again due to its high specific heat (thermal effect) and its ability to reduce the concentration of CH radicals significantly (chemical effect). The comparison of EINO\textsubscript{x} for flames A and B again indicates that the presence of methane in syngas decreases the diluent effectiveness in reducing NO\textsubscript{x} emission from syngas flames. A comparison of the diluent effectiveness for the two flames in terms of the peak NO mole fraction and EINO\textsubscript{x} is presented in Table 4. As indicated in this table, the peak NO

\begin{table} 
\centering 
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|} 
\hline 
Diluent & Peak NO reduction with 10\% dilution by mass & EINO\textsubscript{x} reduction with 10\% dilution by mass \\
\hline 
\hline 
N\textsubscript{2} (%) & 44.1 & 33.6 & 34.9 & 25.9 \\
H\textsubscript{2}O (%) & 79.0 & 71.4 & 75.6 & 68.0 \\
CO\textsubscript{2} (%) & 59.7 & 49.2 & 51.8 & 42.0 \\
\hline 
\end{tabular} 
\caption{Percentage reduction in peak NO and emission index (EINO\textsubscript{x}) using 10\% mass dilution with N\textsubscript{2}, H\textsubscript{2}O, and CO\textsubscript{2}, respectively, for flames A and B.} 
\end{table}
mole fraction decreases by 44.1, 59.7, and 79.0%, respectively, with 10% N₂, CO₂, and H₂O dilution for flame A, and by 33.6, 49.2, and 71.4%, respectively, for flame B. The corresponding reductions in EINOₓ are 34.9, 51.8, and 75.6%, respectively, for flame A, and 25.9, 42.0, and 68.0%, respectively, for flame B.

4. Conclusions

A counterflow configuration was used to simulate syngas combustion and characterize the effects of diluents on NOₓ emission in syngas nonpremixed flames. Two representative syngas mixtures, namely 50%H₂/50%CO and 45%H₂/45%CO/10%CH₄ by volume, were selected using data from various syngas power generation facilities around the world. Three diluents, namely N₂, H₂O, and CO₂, were selected based on the presence of these diluents during the gasification, refinement, and combustion of syngas. The effectiveness of these diluents was characterized in terms of their ability to reduce NOₓ emissions from syngas flames. Important observations are as follows:

1. Syngas nonpremixed flames are characterized by relatively high temperatures and high NO concentrations and emission indices. The presence of methane in syngas decreases the peak flame temperature and thus the thermal NO, but increases the formation of prompt NO significantly. Consequently, for the 50%H₂/50%CO mixture, more NO is formed through the thermal mechanism compared to the prompt mechanism, while for the 45%H₂/45%CO/10%CH₄ mixture, more NO is formed through the prompt mechanism. This can be attributed to the fact that the presence of methane in syngas significantly increases the formation of acetylene, leading to a marked increase in CH concentration and thereby HCN concentration.

2. While all three diluents are generally effective in reducing NOₓ emission from syngas flames, CO₂ and H₂O diluents are more effective compared to N₂. This is due to the fact that air stream dilution with CO₂ and H₂O leads to a larger reduction in both the flame temperature and the concentrations of important radical species, such as O, H, and CH.

3. On a mass basis, H₂O is a more effective diluent than both CO₂ and N₂ in reducing NOₓ emissions from syngas flames. For instance, a 10% H₂O dilution decreases the peak NO concentration by 79.0% and the emission index by 75.6% in 50%H₂/50%CO syngas flame. The corresponding reductions in peak NO and EINOₓ are 59.7 and 51.8%, respectively, with CO₂ dilution, and 44.1 and 34.9%, respectively, with N₂ dilution. The higher effectiveness of H₂O is due to its high specific heat, which decreases the thermal NO, and its ability to reduce CH concentration that decreases the prompt NO.

4. The presence of methane in syngas reduces the effectiveness of all three diluents in reducing NOₓ emissions from syngas flames. This is due to the fact that the presence of methane increases the formation of acetylene considerably, which causes a significant increase in CH concentration and thereby in prompt NO. The increase in acetylene concentration also implies that soot emission is adversely affected by the presence of methane in syngas mixtures.

5. The present investigation highlights the need for experimental investigation of syngas flames in order to provide well-characterized measurements that can be used for the development and validation of simulation models. In addition, the effects of residence time and pressure on the syngas combustion and emission characteristics need to be explored in order to extrapolate the present results to gas turbines applications.

References